

# AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

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## ENGLISH LITERATURE.

### PART ONE.

*"Literature is the immortality of speech. It embalms for all ages the departed kings of learning, and watches over their repose in the eternal pyramids of Fame."*

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ONE hundred and ten years ago the Leviathan of Literature, Samuel Johnson, wrote: "The riches of the English language are much greater than they are commonly supposed," and the eleven decades that have since elapsed, have emphasized his words by the thousands of volumes, which writers in Old and New England have added to the stores he contemplated.

There has been much thought evolved from the English mind, and during the past twelve centuries, this has been recorded in the books of our language. Come with me into a great library. The volumes are arranged in accordance with the topics of which they treat. Over one alcove we read *Law*; over another *Medicine*; over another *Science*; and over another *Philosophy*. Does the literature of which we are treating include all of these volumes? We are told that it does not.

True, we speak, and very properly, of the literature of the law, of theology, of science; but when we speak of litera-

ture in general, we refer to something that is universal, catholic, and which appeals to man as man simply. We must, therefore, exclude from our idea of literature all which relates to the positive sciences. Such books appeal not to man as man, but to students in the pursuit of knowledge of a special sort. De Quincey has well said that there is a literature of knowledge and a literature of power. The former fills the mind, the latter strengthens it. It is the latter which we propose to investigate.

The literature of power is neglected in our schools. Our plan—it was the plan of the Dark Ages also—is to rely upon the authors of Greece and Rome as the means to the development of mental strength. Let us not join in the hue and cry injudiciously raised against the classics as school studies. They must not be excluded. Our motto should not be “No Latin and Greek,” but rather “More English.” A thorough study of our native speech in its wonderful growth, fascinating literature, and composite derivation, affords a stimulating drill, and leads to comprehensive thought as well as to great delicacy of taste. “It is common,” says Dr. Johnson again, “to overlook what is near, by keeping the eye fixed upon something remote,” and this is what we are doing when we neglect our own literature to cultivate acquaintance with that of another land. Shall we not encourage our sons and daughters to wander over the charming fields of poetry, guided by our Chaucer, Milton, Shakspeare, Watts and Tennyson? Is it a small privilege for them to search out the differing beauties of the prose of Bacon, Herbert, Addison, Johnson, Froude, Motley, Hawthorne and Thackeray? Aye, will not loving communion with the masters of thought and expression ennoble our children, strengthen their minds, and beget in them a praiseworthy ambition to develop their own resources?

Suppose we had in one room a series of thirteen alcoves, upon the shelves of which were chronologically arranged specimens of the books written in England and America during each of the centuries since the year six hundred. The number of volumes need not be very large to give us a fair view of the whole of our best writers. Let us now, in imagination, look through this collection.

As we open the few antique volumes in the alcoves of the earliest dates, we find that we can scarcely understand them. The language, the letters, the spelling and the style are all strange to us. Further examination reveals the fact that our literature, which has now attained magnificent proportions, has passed through many stages of growth, as well in regard to the subjects treated as to the style and spirit of its authors. To trace this growth and to enquire for its causes will be our interesting study.

Looking over one alcove after another, we are attracted by that one covering the period between fifteen and sixteen hundred, because the names of the authors and the titles of the books are familiar and intelligible to us. Not far apart we find the works of Shakspeare, Bacon, Edmund Spenser, Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Ben. Jonson, while near them is the Bible of King James, in the very words so familiar to-day. Standing before this alcove, we notice that the language of the books on one side is less and less like what we now call English, while those on the other hand are all written in the mature language of to-day, with but minor variations.

We are prepared to say that at some data between fifteen and sixteen hundred our language and literature were changed, or at least that on one side they were in a state of immaturity, and on the other in a state of maturity. The year 1558 is a convenient one to use for the division, for it marks the opening of the brilliant reign of England's greatest queen.

We have, then, two grand divisions of our subject—Immaturity and Maturity. As the blooming peach in our orchard did not arrive at the perfection that so charms the eye and pleases the taste in a moment, but was ripened by the continuous rays of many sunny days, so our literature did not drop one form and assume another at once. Maturity in both cases was the result of growth so gradual as only to be appreciated in a comprehensive view of the process.

This view we shall get by examining the books in each of the divisions we have now made. Let us take the period of *Immaturity*. The first division we shall very naturally call the period of *Original English*. Writers have sometimes

applied the term Anglo-Saxon to the language of this period, using a modern term by which it was intended to indicate the composite nature of the language. The term Anglo-Saxon was, however, not used at the period, and it has been shown by Max Müller and others of the highest authority that the language was English, and was so called by those who spoke it. The period of Original English may be said to end about the year 1150.

A new influence was exerted upon our language and literature after the conquest by the Normans. The introduction of a new social political and linguistic power resulted in a conflict between the English—which is a Gothic language—and the French—which is of Romanic origin. Thus many foreign words were introduced, the form of Original English was broken up, and we shall find it convenient to speak of the century between 1150 and 1250 as the period of *Broken English*.

The natural result of this state of affairs was that learned men began to look upon English as an unstable language, and those who wrote used Latin, which was understood all over Europe. Thus for a century, our language, though still used by the people, was dead so far as literature is concerned. It has been called the period of stagnation, but it was the stagnation that we notice in the seed before it appears above the ground. During the time England was severed from Normandy, the two races on British soil had become somewhat amalgamated, the universities of Oxford and Cambridge were chartered by Henry III., and the Magna Charta was signed by King John. Let us write *Dead English* over the period from 1250 to 1350.

Even the superficial student of English history will remember the revived national spirit that was so marked in the earlier years of the reign of Edward III., when the yeomanry were asserting their claims to liberty, and were using solid arguments upon the field of battle. The pages of history are marked by the names of Cressy and Poitiers which bring up the deeds of Edward, the Black Prince, and their yeoman soldiery. Literature was revived with patriotism, and among the writers are the poets Chaucer and Spenser, the translators of the Bible, John Wiclif and

William Tindale, and the author of the Vision concerning Piers Plowman. This influence is apparent from 1350 to 1558, which we may call the period of *Reviving English*.

And now we have reached the beginning of the period of *Maturity*. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 caused the expulsion of many learned men from that city. Leo X. when he became Pope of Rome, and before that time, invited these men to Italy, where they established famous schools, and exerted an influence over all Europe. The period is known as that of the Revival of Letters, and we may call it, so far as our literature is concerned, the period of the *Italian Influence*. It was a time of progress in every department of human activity, a fact which will become apparent both to the student of the history and literature of the period.

There was all this time a strife in England upon religious topics. The Puritans had arisen and were earnestly inculcating their views. Their religious and political power increased until in 1649 they beheaded Charles I. in front of his own palace of Whitehall. Then for eleven years Oliver Cromwell and his partisans ruled the country. This strife and its result had a deep and lasting influence upon literature. On our book-shelves we find the works of Fuller, Jeremy Taylor, John Bunyan, Richard Baxter, and of many more whose names and books are still green in our memory. We must write in distinct characters over this division, the *Puritan Influence*. This period extends from 1649 to 1660, but the Puritan influence was felt in literature both before and after those dates.

In the latter year Charles II., who had been luxuriating in the gay court of Louis XIV., was restored to the throne of his ancestors, and his bad example brought many dissipations into England. There was a sudden and marked change in fashions, morals and literature. The Puritans and their sober black dress were ridiculed. The theatres, which they had closed, were opened. Lady Castelmaine, Mrs. Stewart and Nell Gwynne presented examples of voluptuous sensuality, which the minor members of court circles were not slow to imitate. Our literature was marked by the debasing writings of the comic dramatists whom

Macaulay has held up to deserved obloquy, and much of the other literature was also sensualized. Still there was purity in the nation. When Charles II. landed on his native soil he was presented with a costly copy of the Bible, and, in deference to the better sentiments of his subjects, the royal hypocrite kissed the sacred volume, declaring that he loved it above every thing else! Could he have paid a greater compliment to the true nature of the honest English heart?

From 1660 to 1700, however, example proved stronger than precept, and our literature, instead of being sober, manly, deep, and earnest, became frivolous, effeminate, superficial, and trifling.

The next change showed a state of affairs entirely new. The essays of Addison and his associates, addressed to the higher classes, appear to have begotten the newspaper addressed to the people. The son of a non-conformist butcher, who was, of course, shut out from the public schools and universities, obtained an insight of life and nature that schools do not furnish, and, being of the people, wrote for the people with boldness and acceptance. From the days of Daniel Defoe to the present time, the people have not wanted champions, nor have they been slow to assert their rights, and their influence is manifest in the publications from 1700 to the present time. Popular taste has not always made the same demands upon authors, and we shall be interested to trace the changes in the standard of literary excellence during this, which we may call the period of the *People's Influence*.

The years between 1700 and 1745 were those of the literary life of Alexander Pope, who attained a somewhat exceptional popularity. He aimed at elegance and finish in composition as good in themselves, and without being a truly great man or writer, his example made a mark upon the literature of the day. We may, therefore, speak of this as the *Age of Pope*.

The central light in literary circles in England from 1745 to 1800, was Samuel Johnson. He wrote with earnestness and force, and in a peculiar style, all of which characteristics he impressed upon much of the literature of the time. Let us call this the *Age of Johnson*.

The first generation of the present century saw a galaxy of poetical writers arise and flourish. They were influenced to some extent by the new romantic school of Germany, which aimed to overthrow the artificial and pedantic style, which effort was of beneficial influence. We shall call this the *Age of Poetical Romance*.

The year 1830 saw the downfall of Charles X. in France, and the death of the last of the Georges in England, and, during the years that have passed since, the advance of the world in freedom and material prosperity has been greater than in any former period of the same duration. This material progress has given tone to literature. We cannot now continue the discussion, and must be satisfied with the general remark that no department of letters has progressed so rapidly as that of *Prose Romance*, to which the original impetus was given by Sir Walter Scott in his ever famous *Waverly Novels*.

Let us now look over our alcoves, and see how we have systematized the books on our shelves. The divisions are few and simple.

First, there are two grand periods of *Immaturity* and *Maturity*, corresponding with the stages of growth in the realm of Nature, which are marked by the year of Queen Elizabeth's accession in 1558.

In the first of these we found four stages of growth.

- I. *Original English*, previous to 1150.
- II. *Broken English*, 1150—1250.
- III. *Dead English*, 1250—1350.
- IV. *Reviving English*, 1350—1558.

In the second grand division we also marked four stages of growth, named from the influences by which they were caused.

- I. *The Italian Influence*, 1558—1649.
- II. *The Puritan Influence*, 1649—1660.
- III. *The French Influence*, 1660—1700.
- IV. *The People's Influence*, 1700—1870.

The last of these sub-divisions we found convenient to consider under its four aspects.

- I. *The Age of Pope*, 1700—1745.



- II. *The Age of Johnson*, 1745—1800.
- III. *The Age of Poetical Romance*, 1800—1830.
- IV. *The Age of Prose Romance*, 1830—1870.

These divisions are natural, and, being in groups of four, easily remembered. Let us take them up one after another and examine them more minutely. The schedule we have delineated shall constitute the *prenotion* which Lord Bacon recommends every one to establish at the outset of an investigation. "Without such an antecedent general apprehension," says Dr. Shedd in his *Philosophy of History*, "the mind is at a loss where to begin, and which way to proceed. The true idea of any object, is a species of preparatory knowledge which throws light over the whole field of inquiry, and introduces an orderly method into the whole course of examination. It is the clue which leads through the labyrinth; the key to the problem to be solved."

Let us keep our key in mind, and the labyrinth of literature will be plain and easily comprehended.

ARTHUR GILMAN.

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## UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN GERMANY.

### PART FOUR.

SO far we have regarded the German University simply as an admirable machine for instruction, it is something more than this. In making real merit the condition of promotion, it has attained a higher aim—it has founded the scientific glory of the country. Every *privat-docent* knows that his only chance of success is to make himself known by deeper investigation, and better work than his rivals can perform. He knows too that his personal standing is in no danger from intrigue or disgrace, from the interference of officials, or the judgment of a remote superior who is to be won by flattery. His only judges will be his peers, the professors of other Faculties, under the protection of public opinion. The scientific reviews proclaim the results of his studies, and the students spread the renown of his instruc-



tion. His future is sure—he will become titular or supplementary professor. No power, no clique can prevent him. There is no case on record of a *privat-docent* of merit who has remained in the second rank. The secret of this is in that German freedom from centralization which fills us with astonishment. The *privat-docent* of a great university leaves it\* without fear; he has no need of keeping friends or a powerful protector there in order to be assured of his recall at some future day. He is certain that he will be summoned from his exile at one of the less-known universities—such as Giessen, Rostock, or Marburg—if he prove himself worthy. And in the profound calm of these small towns—inhabited, as Goethe said, only by professors, philistines, students, and cattle—he works at his ease; he produces and makes himself known. Nothing disturbs him; scarcely do rumors of the life of the world reach him. We once heard one of the celebrated anatomists of Europe (Bischoff) complain of the excessive distractions of Munich. Munich! almost as animated as Versailles! If the Germans have styled it the Northern Athens, it is certainly not on account of the bustle of its public square. Herr Bischoff yearned for his life at Erlangen, where he had made his interesting researches in embryology, and formed an anatomical collection. He told us of the excitement created in the university and the town by the arrival of a dead crocodile, which had been sent thither from the *Jardin des Plantes* of Paris. His assistants and pupils were kept at work with him almost night and day, in order that nothing of the precious creature might be lost; and they amassed a great number of preparations which now fill the anatomical gallery. Such is the life, such are the momentous incidents, in these insignificant university towns, which have been constantly adorned by the most illustrious names of Germany. After studying and lecturing all day, the young professors gather in the evening, drink a glass of beer together, exchange scientific information, discuss, affirm their doctrines, and excite from this mutual contact greater ardor for the next day's work.

Hence the enormous quantity of original books, memoirs, and investigations that are every day contributed to the

progress of knowledge at all points in the Germanic territory. Among all the nations of Europe, Germany is by far the most industrious in the pursuit of truth. We do not wish to be understood as depreciating French science. The two countries advance on different paths. The German works are all detail, erudition, investigation; they are the result of patience and solid information, but they often lack the spark which makes a science spring from a single book. On the other side of the Rhine there are no great treatises—such as the *Mécanique Céleste* of Laplace, or Cuvier's *Recherches sur les ossements fossiles*, or Bichat's *Anatomie générale*. Germany registers every day an immense number of facts which have been observed, of points of knowledge which have been acquired, but it is perhaps deficient in the art of interpreting, uniting, and separating them according to the process of a strict method. At the present time our neighbors have as many systems as they had in the palmiest days of metaphysics. The philosophical cycle is not yet closed—the purely scientific era is not yet open. In a word, Germany is more under the weight of the past than France; the middle ages yet exist there in a thousand forms—even at the university. Let us open the door, we enter the hall of honor, the *aula*. The assembled Faculty is presiding at the ceremony of conferring the degree of doctor of medicine. The examinations are over. Before the candidate receives his diploma, sealed with the great seal of the Faculty, and signed by the dean, the usual oath is administered. The university judge reads the formula, the candidate repeats it after him, his hand in that of the judge. Now this oath begins thus: "I do solemnly swear to practise medicine, not for myself, but for the greater glory of God," and ends as it begins: "I finally swear to give all my attention to sanctifying religion by the profession which I shall practice. May God and His Holy Gospel aid me." If the candidate be a Jew, the last invocation is somewhat modified. Such is the ceremony of making doctors in the land of Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel. This oath, which may clash with the philosophical opinions of the candidate, is pronounced in Latin; and here we find another Gothic peculiarity in the German system, namely, that the Latin plays a pedantic role there

of which we since the revolution have hardly a trace left. The academic discourses are in Latin, also most of the theses, and these last always contain an abridged life of the young doctor in Latin. The bulky pamphlet, which announces at the beginning of each semester the hours and subjects of the lectures, is all in Latin. The amphitheatre, the desk elevated above the benches, recall the old pedagogic tradition. The words fall from the master to the pupil, instead of being addressed to him, face to face, as is the case in our halls.

However, German science is freeing itself gradually from all this superannuated apparatus, and instruction is undergoing a radical transformation. With its marvellous pliability, it is entering into union with modern tendencies. The lecture-rooms get renewed as well as the doctrines announced there, laboratories rise from the earth, the apparatus becomes complete, and the sciences of life—most closely connected with the religious and social problems of the time—lead the advance in this great movement. In Berlin the Anatomical Museum is lodged in a building of huge but elegant proportions, without extravagance, or ill-placed pretentious ornaments; and if the antique paintings of the halls occasionally recall the old German spirit, the general arrangement of the building is planned according to the latest scientific views. It contains collections, cabinets of instruments, and rooms for investigation. The lecture-room, planned like our own, is contrived with careful particularity; the table, covered with the objects of demonstration, extends into the vast space reserved for the professor, and can be turned in any direction. The rooms for the lectures on chemistry and physics are also especially arranged according to the necessities of those subjects.

The generosity which has been lavished at Berlin on the practical study of anatomy is rivalled at Bonn. The Prussian Government has expended about 800,000 thalers for the laboratories of these two cities, the kingdom of Hanover about 100,000 thalers for that of Göttingen, the little Duchy of Baden 100,000 thalers for the laboratory at Heidelberg—the finest and now the most celebrated of all Germany. It is called the Palace of Nature (*Natur-Pallast*). It is the

domain of Helmholtz. He, after having studied at Berlin, became, while still quite young, professor at the university of Königsberg. The importance of the works which he published there secured his call to Bonn, where he taught anatomy and physiology. The Prussian Government then committed the error of not retaining a man of such value, even at some cost. The Government of Baden, with more wisdom, made him an offer which succeeded in establishing him at Heidelberg. This was in 1857. The new professor had full power to arrange his laboratory to suit himself, and to create an establishment worthy of the great discoveries he already foresaw. The *Natur-Pallast* has special chemical, physical, and physiological laboratories, in which nothing is lacking that is necessary for the study of the sciences of life. The *Natur-Pallast* is one of the glories of this happy little country of Baden. The Parliament votes every year the sum necessary for its support, and when the professors ask it they give additional sums for important acquisitions. Heidelberg has also Bunsen; Berlin has deprived it of Kirchhoff. At Heidelberg were begun the great investigations in spectrum analysis, which are revealing to us the composition of the stars. And so this university, which was celebrated a few years ago for the study of law, is now the centre of the physical and physiological science of Europe. One German State maintains the *Natur-Pallast* from its treasury, keeps Helmholtz and Bunsen, attracts all the students of Germany and all the savants of Europe to one of its universities, and the State which does all this is no larger than three of our departments.

The eighteenth century gave French science the preponderance in Europe. In 1795, Pallas, a German, printed at St. Petersburg his *Tableau physique et topographique de la Tauride* in French. Until 1804 the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin were issued in French; French had become the language of learning throughout the Continent. All this advance has been lost. The wars of the Empire, crowned by the awakening of German nationality, were the signal of a violent reaction which extended to literature and science. The universities, after having raised the theory of education to a lofty height, are now founding its practice on the

broadest basis. The German mind has been renewed by them; it quits its secular swaddling-clothes, and enters into the maturity of the modern spirit with all the advantage of an unrivalled system of education. Therefore the influence of Germany in science goes on increasing in Europe. A few months ago, a *privat-docent* of Berlin, appointed professor at the capital of Holland, began his course in German. The reason which he gave to his astonished hearers was, that German was henceforth the universal language of science. Even at Paris a sort of unmanly discouragement has fallen upon us; the biological sciences themselves have shown a tendency to become Germanized even in the land of Buffon, Bichat, and Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire. This is a serious matter, and well demands the attention of those who are anxious to see France resume a position in science that shall be worthy of her. Patriotism must seek some means of relighting at any cost the torch of truth which France, in days gone by, held higher than all the nations of the world.

GEORGE POUCHET.

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### ELOCUTION.

THE money which sustains our public schools is not a gift, but money well invested. The State expects to receive it again, with interest. There are only two ways in which this debt can be returned, viz., by the hands or by the lips of the recipients. Technical education may instruct the hands, but intellectual education is requisite in order to qualify the lips to perform this duty. Without Elocution, intellectual education is incomplete. A well-stored mind, without a knowledge of that art, may be likened to a reservoir without a main to conduct its waters to the city. True, there are other artificial channels, but history proves that they are not so effective to convey instruction to mankind as the one formed by nature. The Koran was "written" by Mahomet—but the Gospel was "preached" by Jesus Christ. Is it not singular then, that, with us, the art of speaking has been so sadly neglected? Young children, before they

enter our public schools, are, in nine cases out of ten, naturally eloquent; they seldom speak without action, and their actions are graceful because they are natural; but, when they enter our schools, the first thing they generally find out is, that they have each two arms too many. Four, six, or eight years pass,—no practise, no improvement; the neglected talent is forgotten, it has returned to the Giver; in all probability, in the majority of instances, never to be reclaimed.

Doubtless the chief reason why Elocution has been neglected is, that it cannot be taught collectively. It is an art which must be cultivated rather than imparted. It deals with the mind and with the feelings, and these differ in different individuals. Machine Elocution classes are therefore, and consequently must be—failures. In teaching it, general laws are necessary, but minute particularizations are only needed by advanced scholars. Instruction should be given to junior classes by example rather than precept. The highest flights of oratory cannot be described by writing, and are not to be attained methodically by rigid obedience to rules. No sight is more painful to an educator than to hear and see a child deliver a recitation with measurably correct tones and actions—but without feeling. The first thing a good actor does, when appointed on a new part, is to study the character he is to represent. So likewise, a child must comprehend a selection before it can deliver the same with success. Some youths have a foolish idea that the practise of Elocution is unnecessary, that when the time comes for them to speak in public, they will catch the ability to do so, as babies take the measles. This is a grave error. No orator ever attained eminence without much study and practise. To some, it is true, the requisite labor is not a task but a delight. Of course, as age advances, this necessary effort becomes more onerous. How important, then, to commence early in youth! It has been stated that almost all very young children are natural orators, and, this being so—does it not justify us in demanding that this talent in them shall be carefully cultivated from their first admission into our primaries?

In the practise of Elocution, children are learning more,



far more, than how to speak well, though that alone is a very great desideratum. They are improving their memories and expanding their minds. There is a difference between reading and speaking. It is easy to read Milton's Morning Prayer, but he who recites it well must stand in paradise. This development of the imagination is the true corrective of that materialism of the age which fills our cities with crimes. It has of late been asserted by influential presses, that the pupils of our public schools do not even read well, when the production of easy and able speakers ought, with them, to be the rule rather than the exception. If we would improve this state of things, the reformation must commence in our Normal Schools. It is more important that our teachers should be model readers and speakers than that they should be advanced mathematicians. With the example of Demosthenes before us, as regards the acquisition of a knowledge of the art of Elocution, the word "impossible" is not in the dictionary. Let us hope that the time will soon arrive, when, at our school exhibitions, the public will not rest content with listening to the declamations of pupils only, but will expect to be, and will be gratified with hearing also from the artists who take charge of the Oratorical Departments. When this is the case, we shall expect to see great improvement, not only in reading, but in all that general knowledge to which it forms the entrance.

R. W. HUME.

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### *WHAT IS A SENTENCE?*

IN reply to this inquiry, a writer, signing himself "B." in the *AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY* for July, says, "Prof. Andrews, in his 'First Latin Book,' gives the neatest, most concise, and beautiful definition that I know of in the English language. It is [that a sentence is] 'a thought expressed in words.' Thought is the primary element—words, a secondary."

Either "B.'s" knowledge of "neat and beautiful" English definitions is quite limited, or else he has given very little



thought to this definition in particular; for, however concise it may be, it is far from being correct, and consequently can scarcely be called with propriety either neat or beautiful.

The object of speech is unquestionably to give expression to thought; hence sentences should, and generally do, embody one or more thoughts. But to say that thought is "the primary element" of a sentence considered in a grammatical point of view, is to speak without due consideration. Thought is primary to a sentence only as a bird is primary to a bird-cage. That is, as a cage is made to hold a bird, so a sentence is constructed to be the conventional dwelling-place of some thought—with this difference, that a cage is generally made with reference to some prospective bird, possibly not yet hatched or likely to be for some time to come; while a sentence is made with reference to a particular thought already conceived, if not matured and born. The thought is in the sentence only as a tenant. The sentence—the cage of the thought—as such, is a structure of words. Expel the thought, or fail to see it if it is lurking there, and the words become, indeed, "an *unmeaning* sentence." But they form a "sentence" still, for all that—just as a cage is as much a cage though utterly devoid of interest when its soul, the favorite songster, has flown or died, and left it empty or voiceless. To say, therefore, that thought is "the primary *element*" of a sentence is like saying that your canary is the primary element of the cage from which it sings to you. Undoubtedly, in the one case the thought, as in the other the bird, is the primary—perhaps the only—object of *interest* or *value*; but a sentence as such in its "elements," both primary and secondary, consists solely of words and points—or, in brief, of words. To define a sentence, therefore, as "a *thought* expressed in words" is no more philosophical or correct than it would be to define a bird-cage as "a *bird* confined in a thing of wire or wood." As a cage is a structure for holding a bird, so a sentence is a structure for holding a thought. But inasmuch as sentences without thought are most unnatural, stupid, intolerable things—in fact, unworthy of notice—we should hardly define a sentence as "a combination of words *designed* to embody a thought," though this might, all things considered,

be sufficiently correct. We should rather say, that "a sentence is a combination of words not separated by a full stop *embodying* one or more thoughts"—going on the principle that sentences generally do possess some meaning. The combination so called is a structure of words. These, therefore, are its "elements." Accordingly we speak of sentences as long, short, well-constructed and ill-constructed. Thoughts we speak of as sweet, pleasant, vain, holy—but never as long, short, grammatical, or ill-constructed. It is true, we may and often do speak of sentences with reference to the nature or form of the thoughts embodied in them. This is the case when we call language sublime or clear, or when we pronounce a sentence a declarative, or an interrogative, or an imperative, or an exclamatory sentence. But as a thing of grammar or analysis, a sentence is a structure of *words*, consisting of subject and predicate, which in turn consist each of one or more words—not of thoughts, but of symbols of thoughts.

X. X.

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*HUMANISM ARRAIGNED BY REALISM.*

PROF. HENRY MORTON, the President of the Stevens Institute, is an enthusiast for natural science, and seems to favor an almost exclusive training of youth in it. In an address delivered at the inauguration of the Institute he says:

It will perhaps be urged by some that no educational system can be a complete, full, and satisfactory mental training which does not include as an essential feature the classical languages and literature and the metaphysical studies. To this objection, we answer that classical language and metaphysics are so far from being essential to sound mental culture; that, on the contrary, when allowed to have exclusive sway, they tend to dwarf and cripple the human intellect in the most lamentable manner, and we prove this assertion by an appeal to the literary history of the world.

We may answer to this, that exclusive enthusiasm for any specialty whatever tends to cripple the human mind, and to incapacitate it for all higher views. The very way Prof.

Morton attempts to define his position seems to show this with peculiar force. Those that claim classical education to be an essential item of general culture can evidently not be refuted by the reply that the study of the classics, when it is allowed to be *exclusive*, tends to cripple the mind. If our educators would but try to *understand* first the merits of the question they are discussing! The Humanists of the present day are very far from claiming "exclusive sway" for classical and metaphysical training. But what they claim is, to give to youth first and before all other things *the real possession of their own minds*; and only then, when this possession is fully secured, to admit them to the study of experimental science. By reversing this necessary order, to which reversal some of our modern American educators are only too much inclined, we shall produce Vogts, Huxleys, and Davidsons; but no Newtons, Keplers, Humboldts, Kants, and Schillers. The further claim of the Humanists that only the classics can give to the youthful mind the real "possession of itself" is the point which the scientific enthusiasts of our days generally disregard—because they are unable even to discuss it. In our opinion, the whole controversy has long been decided in favor of the Humanists. But it is a favorite maxim of our "Realists" to ignore absolutely what has been proved too evident long ago, and to appeal with refuted reasons to the imperfect judgment of the half-educated.

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### EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION.

AN Act was passed, during the recent session of the New York Legislature, creating a Department of Education designed to unite the fragmentary systems of supervision exercised by the State over all institutions of education, whether public or private, including both Academic and free public-schools, which the State in any degree fosters or supports. The system has been double-headed, consisting of the Department of Public Instruction

in charge of the free schools, and the Board of Regents having supervision of incorporated colleges and academies.

For many years there has been a constantly increasing sentiment that some change should be made, that would give unity and vigor alike to all the educational work of the State, of whatever class or grade, and harmonize conflicting interests.

It has been claimed that the Board of Regents was a useless appendage to the educational machinery; a body ornamental and highly respectable, but lacking vitality and efficiency; whose work consisted chiefly in the distribution of a few thousand dollars and the annual compilation of a voluminous catalogue of the institutions subject to their visitation, submitted as a report to the Legislature. This sentiment, whether just or not, found full expression at the late Constitutional Convention, in an effort which sought the entire abolition of the Board of Regents. Again, a bill to that effect was introduced into the Legislature of 1869. No definite action was taken, but near the close of the session a resolution was passed, requesting the Superintendent of Public Instruction "to inquire into the propriety of abolishing the Board of Regents of the University, and to report to the next Legislature, without expense to the State, what legislation, if any, is necessary to place our colleges, academies, and free schools under a more efficient management."

In response to this resolution, the Superintendent, Hon. Abram B. Weaver, made an able and comprehensive report, in which, while he exonerates the Board of Regents from many of the aspersions which have been cast upon it, he submits specific recommendations for the action of the Legislature, which have been chiefly embodied in the Act referred to. The Act does not abolish the Board of Regents, but limits the term of office of members, hereafter to be elected, to ten years, and makes the Board a part of the Department of Education, reporting to the Superintendent as do the trustees of normal schools, county school commissioners, and all other bodies or persons upon whom are devolved special duties in the various departments of the educational work of the State, each distinctive in their

character, but all responsible to one head. In the same manner do the Regents of the University of Michigan report to the head of the educational department in that State.

It thus gives unity to the control of the educational machinery of the State. It sets aside the objections urged against the former organization, that the management of classes in academies for the education of common-school teachers, the supervision of academical departments in public schools, etc., involved a conflict of jurisdiction. It places the State Normal School at Albany under the charge of a local board of trustees in the same manner as the seven other normal schools of the State. It continues the duties of the Regents in the visitation of colleges and academies, and adds to them the visitation of the State Normal Schools. It also continues them in independent charge of the State Library, State Museum of Natural History, State Boundary Monuments, etc.

It is a happy feature of the present plan that a question, which seemed to demand some radical remedy, that was felt of so much importance as to command the attention and earnest consideration of the ablest men in the Constitutional Convention and the State Legislature, should have been settled in so simple and satisfactory a manner.

The legislative and popular approbation has been indicated by the fact that the bill was supported by the leading representatives of both parties in both houses of the Legislature, and has been endorsed by leading public journals of both parties throughout the State. Under the circumstances, it appears somewhat remarkable that the Governor has not yet acted upon this bill, which embodies such a wise and popular measure of reform.

One effect of the bill would be to terminate the office of the present Superintendent of Public Instruction; but the confidence of the Legislature in his fitness for the position was shown in the fact that he was designated in the bill, without partizan opposition, as the head of the new Department.

We print the bill entire, as a matter of general interest.

AN ACT

TO CREATE A DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, AND IN REGARD TO THE REGENTS  
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

*The People of the State of New York, Represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact  
as follows :*

SECTION 1. The department of public instruction and the office of superintendent of public instruction are hereby abolished.

SEC. 2. A department of education and the office of State superintendent are hereby created. The present superintendent of public instruction shall be such superintendent of education for a term commencing on the day this Act shall take effect, and ending on the first Tuesday of April, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-three. Thereafter the term of said office shall be three years, commencing on the next day after an election thereto, and continuing until a successor shall be duly elected. On said first Tuesday of April, one thousand eight hundred and seventy-three, and on the first Tuesday of April every third year thereafter a superintendent shall be elected by joint ballot of the Senate and Assembly. But, in case of a vacancy occurring in said office before the expiration of the term for which any superintendent shall have been elected, then a superintendent shall be elected in the manner above provided, upon the first Tuesday of April next after the occurrence of such vacancy, for a full term of years, and upon the first Tuesday of April every third year thereafter.

SEC. 3. The said superintendent shall have, in addition to those conferred or imposed by this Act, all the powers, and shall be charged with all the duties heretofore vested in, or imposed upon, the superintendent of public instruction.

SEC. 4. His salary shall be five thousand dollars a year, payable quarterly, by the treasurer, on the warrant of the comptroller.

SEC. 5. Wherever the words "Department of Public Instruction" or "Superintendent of Public Instruction" occur in the laws of the State, they shall, for all future purposes of such laws, be construed to mean department of education and superintendent of education, respectively.

SEC. 6. The Regents of the University of the State of New York shall be nineteen in number, including those now in office who were elected by joint ballot of the Senate and Assembly, and who shall continue to be regents during life, or until other offices shall be vacated as provided by law. All other regents shall be elected by joint ballot of the Senate and Assembly, and the term of every regent hereafter elected shall be ten years, commencing on the day after an election thereto.

SEC. 7. The annual meeting of the Regents of the University shall be held in the Senate Chamber, at the Capitol, on the second Tuesday of December.

SEC. 8. All annual reports of the regents in relation to colleges and academies, as now required by law, shall hereafter be made and submitted to the superintendent of education, at a day not later than the third Tuesday of December.

SEC. 9. The State Normal School at Albany shall hereafter be under the supervision and control of the superintendent of education and a local board, in like manner and to the same extent as are the Normal Schools established under the provisions of chapter four hundred and sixty-six of the laws of eighteen hundred and sixty-six. Immediately after the passage of this Act, the said superintendent shall appoint a local board of not more than nine members, which



shall have all the powers and be charged with all the duties in respect to said school, that are possessed by or imposed upon the local boards appointed under the provisions of the act above cited.

SEC. 10. In addition to the duties now imposed upon them by law, it shall be the duty of the regents, by themselves or their committees, to visit and inspect the several State Normal Schools, to inquire into their management, and to report thereon to the superintendent of education.

SEC. 11. The regents shall annually report to the superintendent of education, on or before the third Tuesday of December, the several institutions entitled to participate in the distribution of the income of the literature fund and other moneys appropriated to the support of academies, and the number of pupils in each of them who, for four months during the preceding year, shall have pursued therein classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both, and the said superintendent shall thereafter make, in the same manner now prescribed by law, and delivered to the comptroller, a schedule of the distribution of such moneys; and payment shall thereupon be made to the treasurer, upon the warrant of the comptroller, in the manner now provided by law.

SEC. 12. All moneys appropriated for the purchase of text-books, maps and globes, and chemical or philosophical apparatus for the use of academies, pursuant to the provisions of chapter five hundred and thirty-six of the laws of eighteen hundred and fifty-one, shall be paid by the treasurer upon warrant of the comptroller and the certificate of the superintendent of education. And the superintendent shall not draw his certificate for the payment of such moneys to any of such institutions except upon the recommendation of the regents, accompanied by evidence of the trustees of the institution, to which it is to be appropriated, have raised and applied an equal sum of money to the same object, nor for a sum exceeding two hundred and fifty dollars to any institution in any one year.

SEC. 13. The treasurer shall pay yearly, upon the warrant of the comptroller, out of the income of the United States deposit or literary funds not otherwise appropriated, the sum of eighteen thousand dollars for instruction in academies in the science of common school teaching, under a course of study prescribed by the regents of the university and approved by the superintendent of education, the same to be paid in the following manner, viz.: To the trustees of all academies selected for that purpose by the superintendent of education, upon the recommendation of the regents of the university, the sum of ten dollars for each scholar, not to exceed twenty scholars in each academy, who shall have been instructed in said academy under the course prescribed in accordance with the provisions of this section, during at least one-third of the academic year, in the science of common school teaching.

SEC. 14. The comptroller shall not draw his warrant for any amount, as above provided, until the trustees of such academies shall have furnished to the superintendent of education satisfactory evidence that the course prescribed as aforesaid has been thoroughly pursued by a class previously designated and instructed as common school teachers, and who the said trustees believe intend in good faith to follow the said occupation, nor until the superintendent shall have certified such facts to him.

SEC. 15. All acts and parts of acts, in relation to the regents of the university of the State of New York, not inconsistent with the provisions of this Act, shall continue in force.

SEC. 16. This Act shall take effect immediately.



## SCHOOL ACCOMMODATIONS.

THE Rev. Marvin R. Vincent, D.D., of Troy, now recreating in Europe, has written a series of sparkling letters to the *Troy Times*. In a recent letter, he thus describes the surroundings of the English school boy as compared with those enjoyed by an American youth:

"A short ride brought me to Leamington Spa, a place which a young clergyman in the carriage said was the best arranged town in England. Of this I had no means of judging, as time did not permit me to do more than run down a single street, which certainly was pretty and trim enough. But at least the town looks well from the carriage window, and has a newer appearance than most English towns of the same size. Once more on the rail, and off at Rugby. There could be but one object of interest there, and to that I speedily found my way. The school buildings are not unhandsome, particularly the new portions. The visitor enters through a spacious gate into a court with cloisters on three sides, out of which open various doors, leading to the kitchen, the school hall, the armory and other apartments. The porter had read 'Tom Brown,' and took it for granted that I had, and accordingly appealed to my recollection of that most healthy and excellent book as he pointed out one place after another. Here was the præpostor Jones's study at the head of the passage, and the smaller dens ranged in order beyond, in one of which Tom and East and Arthur were wont to plan excursions and discuss the morality of 'ponies.' Cosy little places they are, each with its table and lounge and chair, and where two good sized-boys could be just comfortable with close packing. Here was the school hall and the fireplace where Tom was roasted. Here was the kitchen to which the fags descended for hot water for the lords of the Sixth. But such school furniture! How the children of a Troy ward school would open their eyes at such appointments, and consider themselves insulted at being set to work upon such desks and seats! Desks, consisting of plain deal-boards supported on two or three props, long benches of the same material, and the surfaces of both literally encrusted with the work of generations of penknives. Which policy is the better? The American public school furnishes its pupils with light, cheerful, handsome rooms, and pretty desks, and throws upon the student the responsibility of taking care of them. It makes neatness and order and respect of property incidental lessons along with geography and arithmetic. The English school gives its boys a bare, unfinished hall, and school furniture which offers a premium on the most successful mutilation. Assuming at the outset that the young Englishman will scratch and cut and break, it says to him, 'Here is something

that scratching and cutting cannot make much worse, now scratch and cut to your heart's content. You are a young cub which will defile its den, now behold a den which will be little the worse for defiling.' Which plan is the better?"

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### EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS of this year have been well attended, in spite of the excessively hot weather, and the partial absence of the School Book Agents. The usual enthusiasm, and careless good feeling seems to have prevailed, with only few exceptions. In certain quarters a good natured "mutual admiration" developed itself in rather high degree.

We are not aware of the discussion of any novel subjects, or the promulgation of any new ideas concerning old subjects. No one threatened any very vigorous raid upon the multitude of errors and absurdities which closely surround school teaching and school supervision.

Our space forbids full reports of what was said and done at these several meetings. Instead of reproducing the reports, it might be nearly as well to refer our readers to the printed reports of last year, and the year before, and the year before that—changing merely the names of the officers and speakers. In many cases the names of the speakers need not be changed, though new titles and degrees—such as A. M., LL. D., Dr. Ph., etc., would need to be added from time to time. However, these conventions are doing great good to teachers, and to the cause of education, hence we are glad, each year, to report increased attendance.

A summary of the proceedings of the Convention at Syracuse, N. Y., we will make place for. It has been kindly furnished by the Recording Secretary:—

#### NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Twenty-sixth Annual Meeting of this Association was held in Syracuse, July 26, 27, and 28.

The address of welcome was made by President WHITE, of Cornell University. He reviewed the "Battle Fields of Education," the contest being between the

spirit of public education and the spirit of bigotry. He favored no sectarian schools.

S. D. BARR, of Rochester, President of the Association, in reply, thanked Mr. White for his great efforts in former years in the New York Legislature in behalf of popular education, and attributed to him much of the success of our common school system. In his inaugural address, Mr. Barr traced the course of the Association during the past twenty-five years, and in closing commended the work of the State Normal Schools, and advised teachers to add to the elementary course, and the culture of the higher course.

There are two topics upon which committees report every year. The first, "The Condition of Education" was the subject of a report by the Chairman, Dr. JUTLEDEN, of Albany. The report set forth that the condition of education is encouraging, because more correct ideas on the subject of education are making progress. Now it is deemed to be teacher's work—not simply to communicate knowledge, but to lead his pupils to such habits—intellectual, moral, and social—as shall fit them for the work of life. Formerly teachers proceeded from the general to the particular; now it is the opposite; now we understand that a good educational institution means something more than huge piles of brick and mortar, apparatus, etc. The vitality of the institution depends upon the quality of its teachers; ladies still, however, do not get pay commensurate with their work.

The other stated report was by Prof. H. KRUST, of Oswego. It was upon "Improved Methods in Education," development of principles from scholars, without text-books, in accordance with the "The Oswego Methods" was advocated in the report.

Two addresses were delivered, one by Dr. J. W. ARMSTRONG, of Fredonia, who gave "A Chapter on the Origin and History of the Material Universe." No brief synopsis can do justice to the lecture, which abounded in close logical deductions and real eloquence. It was well received.

The other address was by Dr. S. J. WILLIAMS, of Cleveland. He said that the experiment of giving "A" Grammar School to lady principals in Cleveland had been eminently successful, the examination of the pupils for admission to the high school, showing ten per cent. better scholarship than under male principals the previous year. He believed in the right of the seat text-books, but had seen excellent results from their entire abandonment. He also urged upon teachers the necessity of directing pupils in the selection of proper readings.

At each session a number of "papers" were read, usually followed by discussions of the views presented.

The first, by Dr. ARMSTRONG, of Fredonia, was not a "paper," but an exercise, with simple apparatus, showing how the principles of centrifugal and central forces can be developed now in a common school, and in like manner of natural science in general; and this, too, by means of very simple apparatus.

In the discussion following, the exercise was highly commended by Dr. WOOLWORTH, Prof. STEELE, Prof. COOLEY, and others; and the Doctor's recommendations were adopted by the Association.

Dr. M. McVICAR, of Potsdam, in a paper on the "Teachers, Our Times, and Demand," drew the line between the theoretical and practical modes of education. The active and progressive character of our age demands live teachers—teachers of comprehensive ideas, practical minds, and thorough discipline. He favored the use of proper text books.

Prof. C. D. McLEAN, of Brockport, read a paper entitled "The Teacher as a Citizen." The responsibilities of the teacher in educating the child for citizenship were pointedly presented. In the discussion that followed, teachers were reminded that in becoming teachers, they surrendered none of their rights as citizens.

Prof. J. H. HOOSE, of Cortland, read a paper concerning "The True Idea of School Discipline." He felt that virtue and truth must be cultivated, and that the school should be largely governed by good disposition of the pupils.

The discussion following the reading of the paper seemed to turn upon Corporal Punishment.

Rev. S. J. MAY, of Syracuse, said that the rod was abolished in the schools of this city three years ago, and good results had followed. Other means of discipline had been substituted, being mainly rewards.

Prof. C. H. ANTHONY, in a speech which seemed to meet the approval of the

house, replied that he considered this world a great school, and our Heavenly Father the school-master; and that we could take lessons from Him in the matter of governing pupils. He thought that scholars who were educated without the rod were not fully educated—he pitied the children of Syracuse.

Mr. ROES, of Seneca Co., who for a quarter of a century has been on hand as the champion of the "rural districts," and the great source of merriment, quoted Solomon. He didn't so much believe in moral suasion. In visiting an Eastern city school, he ached to get hold of the unruly pupils. He didn't like City Boards of Education—they made their teachers mere animals to do their bidings.

Prof. H. A. BALCOM, of Coming, read a paper, which proposed to throw overboard the study of English grammar.

Mrs. A. T. RANDALL, of Oswego, read a paper, entitled "The School Mistress." A vivid picture was first given of "The School Marm" of the olden time. She then paid a handsome tribute to the memory of Mrs. Emma Willard and Miss Ellen M. Seaver; and lastly, showed the progress made in facilities for female education, and more equitable compensation of female teachers.

Prof. C. H. ANTHONY, in a paper entitled "School sui generis" gave an account of an expedition under the direction of Prof. Amos Eaton, with competent assistance, which was sent out in 1828 by Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer, then Patroon of Albany. They were to traverse the State, having the Erie Canal as a base, making geological surveys, examining quarries and mines, and learning adaptation of soils to various purposes, etc., etc. They were to lecture to the people on the result of their observations and give instruction in the natural science. This was highly successful, and led to the establishment of the "Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute."

Mrs. H. B. HEWS read a paper upon "Government," which advocated that the right of suffrage should be based upon intelligence and morality without regard to sex.

Miss EMILY A. RICE, of Darien, Conn., read a paper upon "Toils and Toilers" and Miss ELLEN J. MERRITT, of Potsdam, upon "Our Rural District Schools."

Prof. E. A. SHELTON, from a committee appointed last year, reported a plan of examinations for State certificates, to be under the direction of the State Superintendent and the principals of the State Normal Schools. No final action was had on the report.

Hon. Victor M. Rice, Mrs. Emma Willard and Miss Ellen M. Seaver, having died during the year, due obituary mention was made by Dr. J. B. Thompson, of New York, Chairman of Committee on Necrology.

H. R. SANFORD, of Fredonia, from committee appointed last year, reported the revised Constitution and By Laws which were unanimously adopted.

D. J. PRATT, of Albany, the Treasurer, reported \$550 in the treasury.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President, J. Dounan Steele, Elmira. Vice-Presidents, Miss Silvia J. Eastman, Buffalo; A. J. McMillan, Utica; W. A. Welch, Onondaga Valley; Miss Camelia Peterson, Oswego. Corresponding Secretary, Jas. Cruikshank, Brooklyn. Recording Secretary, H. R. Sanford, Fredonia. Asst. Rec. Secretary, E. Curtis, Sodus. Treasurer, D. J. Pratt, Albany.

The next meeting will be held at Lockport, July 25, '71. The exercises were interspersed by music from singers of Syracuse, and readings by Mrs. S. T. Randall and Miss H. L. D. Potter.

At the meeting of the School Commissioners and City Superintendents, held in Syracuse, July 25th and 26th, the following officers were elected for the next year: President, Edward Smith, of Onondaga County. Vice Presidents, A. H. Pierson, Tompkins; M. S. Laughlin, St. Lawrence. Recording Secretary, E. Osborn Broome. Corresponding Secretary, S. G. Ellis, Monroe. Treasurer, J. McGonigal, Wayne.

The next meeting will be held in Utica, on the second Tuesday of May, 1871. We understand that the entire proceedings of the recent interesting meeting are to be published in pamphlet form.

WISCONSIN.—The Eighteenth Annual Session of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, held at Watertown, July

12-14th, was a decided success. Over 400 teachers were in attendance. Addresses were made by W. D. Parker, S. S. Rockwood, H. A. Brown, T. Bernhard, J. T. Lovewell, and A. H. Everett. Evening Lectures were delivered by R. Edwards, of Norrval, Ill.; E. O. Haven, of Evanston, Ill., and W. E. Merriman, of Ripon, Wis. The officers of the ensuing year are: President, Robert Graham; Vice Presidents, D. E. Holmes, T. C. Pomeroy, B. M. Reynolds; Secretary, A. Earthman; Treasurer, G. W. Heath; Executive Committee, W. D. Parker, S. Shaw, G. S. Albee, W. A. Delamatyr, and D. G. Purman.

TEXAS.—Gov. Davis, in his message to the Legislature, recommends a careful consideration of the question of providing for the education of the children of the State, and gives the subject such a prominence that in all probability, we shall soon hear that Texas is not behind her sister States in educational matters.

LA PORTE, IND.—The Report of the Superintendent (Mr. C. E. Otis) shows the whole number of pupils enrolled in 1869 to be 1,144; the average number belonging, 775; the average daily attendance, 732, or 95 per cent.; the number of teachers employed, 19; the number of pupils in high schools, 60; number of graduates, 10. The progress made during the year has been satisfactory, and a review of the work done gives indications of steady advancement.

MADISON, WIS.—The Board of Education employs one male and twenty-one female teachers, at salaries ranging from \$360 00 to \$1,500 00. The total number of seats in the schools is 1,125. The average number of pupils belonging to the schools is 1,074; the average attendance, 994. The Report of the Superintendent (Mr. B. M. Reynolds) does not give much statistical information, but is made up of observations on discipline, corporal punishment, instruction, etc.

WORCESTER, MASS.—The Report of the Superintendent shows that Worcester can still afford to maintain schools of the first order, and support them liberally. From

the summary of statistics, we learn that the number of children in the city between the ages of five and fifteen years is 6,846; the average number belonging to schools, 6,322; the average daily attendance, 5,610, or more than 90 per cent. The number of male teachers was 9, number of female teachers, 129—total 138, of whom 8 graduated at either of the State Normal Schools. The whole expense of the School Department, including cost of lots and buildings, \$207,956 80, of which \$77,631 78 was for teachers' salaries; \$3,575 00 for salaries of school officers; and the balance for buildings, incidental expenses, etc. The average cost per scholar in all the schools was \$15 44; in the evening schools, \$4 31. There are 31 school-houses belonging to the city, the number of sittings being 6,877. The average age of pupils is about 10 years. The evening schools are in session four months, and have an average attendance of 100, or 12.5 to every teacher employed.

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

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THE latest work on Political Economy<sup>1</sup> appears to be rather a dissertation on political economy than a close and logically built-up definition of the same. It discusses the subjects of wealth, labor, and capital, and devotes a chapter to the refutation of the Malthiesian theory of population. From the chapter on "Rent," the following is extracted :

"The entire science of English Political Economy may be said to be built upon three leading theories—that of Adam Smith, concerning Free Trade; that of Malthies, in regard to Population; and that of Ricardo, in regard to Rent. They are intimately connected with each other, and a full appreciation of the mixture of truth and falsehood which they contain would tend to clear the science of its

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<sup>1</sup> AMERICAN POLITICAL ECONOMY, including Strictures on the Management of the Currency and the Finances since 1861. By FRANCIS BOWEN. 8vo., pp. 495. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.



local, English character, and to fit it for universal acceptance and utility."

Many dictums of these worthies on all the above questions are condemned as inapplicable to new countries, and the economy of nature defended against the assaults which have so long been made against it in Great Britain." The latter part of the work is devoted to The Theory and Uses of Money, The Substitutes for Money, The National Banking System, National Debt, Taxation, concluding with a chapter on the doctrine of International Exchanges, showing also the limits of Free Trade and the protective system.

From this notice it will be perceived that it really is what it professes to be, "An American System of Political Economy." The debated points throughout it are examined into with great fairness, and the opinions on both sides faithfully exhibited. It will be a very valuable addition to our college literature, and it would not be amiss if the chapter headed "National Debt" were published in pamphlet form, so that our people generally could obtain its truthful information on that very important item. In these times a carefully written book on the subject of political economy is a public good, and a simpler and more condensed work on it would be a present benefit to the schools, and would doubtless prove a future blessing to the community. At present we have only Dr. Wayland's, which is merely a re-hash of the English system, in many respects, as proved by the work before us, unsuited to the United States.

MESSRS. HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York, have published during the past month the following:

THE ROB ROY ON THE JORDAN, Nile, Red Sea, and Gennesareth, etc. "A Canoe Cruise in Palestine and Egypt, and the Waters of Damascus." By J. Maggregor, M.A. With maps and illustrations. 464 pages. LIFE, LETTERS, LECTURES, AND ADDRESSES OF FRED. W. ROBERTSON, M.A. incumbent of Trinity Chapel, Brighton, 1847-1853. Complete in one volume. 840 pages. MAN AND WIFE, a Novel. By Wilkie Collins. With a portrait and many illustrations. Cloth, 239 pages. SPEECHES, LETTERS, AND SAYINGS OF CHARLES DICKENS, to which is added a Sketch of the Author. By George Augustus Sala, and Dean Stanley's Sermon Paper, 150 pages, price 50c.



MESSRS. WILSON, HINKLE & Co., of Cincinnati, publish, just as we are going to press:

A PRIMARY ARITHMETIC, uniting oral and written exercises in a natural system of instruction. AN INTERMEDIATE ARITHMETIC, uniting mental and written exercises in a natural system of instruction. A COMPLETE ARITHMETIC, uniting mental and written exercises in a natural system of instruction. By E. E. White, M.A. The same firm have just published A COMPLETE ALGEBRA FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES. By A. Schuyler, M.A., professor of mathematics in Baldwin University.

MESSRS. D. APPLETON & COMPANY, New York, have recently published: (1.) THE FIRST BOOK OF BOTANY. By Eliza A. Youmans. It is designed to cultivate the observing powers of children. 183 pages. (2.) THE NATURAL SPEAKER. By Joseph Heden, D.D., LL.D. It is made up of selections to aid the student in acquiring a simple, natural, business-like style of speaking. (3.) A PRACTICAL GRAMMAR OF THE GERMAN LANGUAGE. By Hermann D. Wrage. (4.) CÆSAR'S COMMENTARIES ON THE GALLIC WAR, with explanatory Notes, a copious Dictionary, and a Map of Gaul. By Albert Harkness, LL.D.

SAMUEL R. WELLS, 389 Broadway, New York. LIFE AT HOME; or, The Family and its Members. By William Aikman, D.D. 250 pages, price \$1 50.

CHARLES C. CHATFIELD & Co., New Haven, Conn., have issued No. 3 University Series, AS REGARDS PROTOPLASM, in relation to Prof. Huxley's Essay on the Physical Basis of Life. By James Hutchison Sterling. Paper, 71 pages.

THE AMERICAN NEWS COMPANY, New York. THE CHEMICAL HISTORY OF THE SIX DAYS OF CREATION. By John Phin, C.E., editor of the "Technologist."

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### MISCELLANEA.

J. D. STEELE, A. M., of Elmira, N. Y., has had the honorary degree of Dr. Ph. conferred upon him by the Regents of the University of the State of New York.

ORANGE JUDD has given \$30,000 to endow a new professorship at Wesleyan College. His donations now amount to \$100,000.

AT school, at Wallsend, near Newcastle, the master asked a class of boys the meaning of the word "appetite," when, after a short pause, one little boy said: "I know, sir; when I'm eating, I'm appy; and when I'm done, I'm tight."

A colossal statue of governor Jonathan Trumbull has been placed in the art gallery of Yale college.

THREE BOYS in Trenton, N. J., have constructed a telegraphic line between their residences, and, instead of spending their evenings on the streets—playing with Tom, Dick, and Harry—remain at home, holding familiar conversation with each other over their wires. We know also of a boy, of ten years, in Cambridge, who owns, and with the aid of an older brother, works a Novelty printing press, with which he has already, within a few weeks, done over sixty dollars' worth of job-work. He finds plenty to do in the line of cards and hand-bills at fair prices. Parents who are troubled with roving sons will find a suggestion here.

A VERY skilful and successful teacher of children is wont to express her indebtedness for much of her success to the following rules which were first put into this shape by JACOB ABBOTT:

"When you consent, consent cordially." "When you refuse, refuse finally." "When you punish, punish good naturedly." "Commend often." "Never scold."

Some bulky books contain less practical value than these short sentences.

"PEOPLE," says a modern philosopher, "go according to their brains—if these lie in their head, they study; if in their stomach, they eat; if in their heels, they dance."

A SCHOOL at which negroes will be taught architecture, phonography, telegraphing, etc., is to be started in Louisville.

THE renowned French painter Monvoisin died in April last at Boulogne, in his eightieth year. His most celebrated picture was "The Ninth Thermidor," which subjected the artist to a political persecution. He was compelled in consequence of it to emigrate to the United States, whence he returned to France, only four years ago.

MR. CUYCKANICKPUCKS Yakutskolitmilks Sakiatskyilitmilks Ankachagamuks Kekutonekutzokorts, who keeps a hotel at Sitka, Alaska, says that the Americans have the queerest names he ever heard of, and it is with the utmost difficulty he can pronounce them.

REV. Thomas W. Tobey, principal of Paducah Female Seminary, has been appointed professor of ancient languages in Bethel College, Russellville, Ky.

VERMONT has elected three female superintendents of schools.

A LADY in Westchester County, N. Y., wishes to secure a position as teacher of *mather-matics*. She has an *idear* that she will succeed; but cannot give references, as her late teacher has *gorn traverling*. We should think so.

"YOU are very stupid, Thomas," said a country teacher to a little boy, eight years old. "You are a little donkey; and what do they do to cure them of stupidity?" "They feed them better, and kick them less," said the arch little urchin.

A SAN FRANCISCO school-teacher received the following: "I hope, as to my John, you will flog him just as offen as you kin. Heas a bad boy—is John. Altho I've bin in habit of teachin him myself, it seem to me he never will larn anything—his spellin is ottragously deficient. Wallop him well, sir; and you will receiv my thanks. P.S. What accounts for John bein such a scholar, is that he is my sun by my wife's fust husband."

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## SCIENTIFIC.

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THE ZODIACAL LIGHT AND TERRESTRIAL MAGNETISM.—Balfour Stewart, F. R. A. S., some time since suggested that auroral displays may be secondary currents due to small but rapid changes in the magnetism of the earth. He now adds that the *zodiacal light* may also be somehow connected with the phenomena of terrestrial magnetism. He says: "For not only will secondary currents be caused in a stationary conductor in presence of a magnetic core of variable power, but also in a conductor moving across the lines of force of a constant magnet. The question arises, have we on the earth such moving conductors? In answer to this, let us reflect what takes place at the equator. When once the anti-trades have reached the upper regions of the atmosphere, they will become conductors from their tenuity; and as they pass rapidly over the lines of the earth's magnetic force we may expect them to be the vehicles of an electric current, and possibly to be lit up as attenuated gases are when they conduct electricity. May not these form the zodiacal light?"